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# High-Power CMOS Current Driver With Accurate Transconductance for Electrical Impedance Tomography

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**Abstract**—Current drivers are fundamental circuits in bioimpedance measurements including electrical impedance tomography (EIT). In the case of EIT, the current driver is required to have a large output impedance to guarantee high current accuracy over a wide range of load impedance values. In this paper we present an integrated current driver which meets these requirements and is capable of delivering large sinusoidal currents to the load. The system employs a differential architecture and negative feedback, the latter allowing the output current to be accurately set by the ratio of the input voltage to a resistor value. The circuit was fabricated in a 0.6- $\mu\text{m}$  high-voltage CMOS process technology and its core occupies a silicon area of 0.64 mm<sup>2</sup>. It operates from a  $\pm 9\text{V}$  power supply and can deliver output currents up to 5 mA pk-pk. The accuracy of the output current is within 0.41% up to 500 kHz, reducing to 0.47% at 1 MHz for currents up to 5 mA pk-pk with a total harmonic distortion of 0.69%. The output impedance is 665 k $\Omega$  at 100 kHz and 372 k $\Omega$  at 500 kHz.

**Index Terms**—Accurate transconductance, bioimpedance, CMOS circuits, current driver, electrical impedance tomography (EIT), high power design.

## I. INTRODUCTION

ELECTRICAL IMPEDANCE TOMOGRAPHY (EIT) offers particular promise in the assessment of neonatal lung function because it is as a non-invasive imaging method requiring no collaboration from the infant [1]–[4]. Sinusoidal currents are applied to the surface of the body tissue via electrode pairs and the resulting surface potentials are recorded at several locations of the electrode array in order to obtain a set of bioimpedance measurements. Specialized reconstruction algorithms are then employed to produce a

tomographic image [5]. The high air content of the lung can provide high contrast images as the impedance of the air is much higher than the surrounding tissue. Absolute lung resistivity can be associated with structural characteristics and tissue composition which can be useful in the identification of certain health conditions in neonatal lungs [4].

Current drivers are key devices in EIT systems. For accurate current delivery to the tissue load a current driver should have high output impedance over the total bandwidth of operation. In the case of neonatal lung function monitoring the frequency range is typically 4 kHz to 813 kHz [4] and an output current accuracy of better than 0.5% is desirable. In practice the impedance of the load (electrode-tissue interface) can vary greatly in magnitude. A study of the electrode-tissue impedance characteristic was presented in [6], in which six different types of Ag/AgCl electrodes were evaluated over the frequency range between 10 Hz and 1 MHz. For frequencies below 1 kHz the electrode-tissue impedance was higher than 10 k $\Omega$  and reduced to approximately 1.7 k $\Omega$  at 10 kHz, 800  $\Omega$  at 50 kHz, 559  $\Omega$  at 100 kHz, and 494  $\Omega$  at 1 MHz. In another study [7], electrode-tissue impedance characteristics were reported to be around 220  $\Omega$  at 100 kHz reducing to 120  $\Omega$  at 1 MHz. Exact determination of the load impedance is a difficult task, thus when dealing with the design of bioimpedance instrumentation a range of load values need be considered.

The majority of current drivers reported in the literature for EIT and bioimpedance applications are based on discrete electronic designs mostly employing the modified Howland topology [8]. A balanced Howland topology uses a pair of opamps and resistive networks in positive and negative feedback paths. The performance of the Howland topology depends on the specification of the opamps used and the degree of matching of the resistors. The design in [9] used resistors of 0.01% tolerance in order to achieve a high output impedance (1.7 M $\Omega$  at 50 kHz). The Howland topology in [10] achieved a measured output impedance of about 750 k $\Omega$  at 10 kHz, reducing to 330 k $\Omega$  at 300 kHz, and eventually to 70 k $\Omega$  at 1 MHz. The maximum output current was limited to 1 mA pk-pk with an accuracy of about 2% over the total bandwidth. The need for extremely high resistor precision makes the Howland topology unsuitable for integrated circuit design.

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Other discrete component current driver designs include a topology based on supply current sensing [11] with a measured output impedance of  $2.6\text{ M}\Omega$  at  $100\text{ kHz}$  reducing to  $160\text{ k}\Omega$  at  $500\text{ kHz}$ . The current driver in [12] uses an opamp in inverting configuration with the load present in the negative feedback path. Particular attention was again given to the output impedance characteristic of the circuit and its dependency upon the circuit's components. It achieved a measured output impedance of about  $350\text{ k}\Omega$  at  $50\text{ kHz}$  reducing to  $120\text{ k}\Omega$  at  $1\text{ MHz}$ . The EIT system in [13] used a current conveyor based current driver, with a measured output impedance of  $1.5\text{ M}\Omega$  at  $10\text{ kHz}$ , reducing to  $29.7\text{ k}\Omega$  at  $500\text{ kHz}$ . A dc suppression feedback loop was utilized to keep the dc output voltage levels to zero. The instrumentation amplifier (IA) based current driver in [14] used digitally-controlled negative capacitance circuits to regulate the circuit's output capacitance and resistance and thus trim the overall output impedance at a specific operating frequency. After trimming the measured output impedance was above  $64\text{ M}\Omega$  at  $30\text{ kHz}$  but temperature variations caused it to drift to below  $25\text{ M}\Omega$ .

A handful of custom integrated current drivers have been presented [15]-[19]. The design in [15] is a modification of the supply current sensing scheme [11] using bipolar technology. Simulated results indicated that the circuit's output impedance is  $2.5\text{ M}\Omega$  at  $1\text{ MHz}$  but no measurements to date have been reported. A current driver in  $0.18\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  CMOS technology was described in [16] using four current sources implemented in an H-bridge configuration. The circuit uses common-mode feedback (CMFB) to control the dc voltage levels at the output nodes. It achieved high output impedance in simulation ( $10.2\text{ M}\Omega$  at  $1\text{ MHz}$ ) but no measurements were reported. The current driver in [17] also uses a standard  $0.18\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  CMOS technology. It was designed to operate at  $90\text{ kHz}$  and uses two fully differential amplifiers to generate the input sinusoidal voltage signal, cascaded by a voltage controlled current source implemented by two transistors and a resistor. Its maximum output current is only  $350\text{ }\mu\text{A}$  pk-pk with an accuracy of  $1\%$  at  $90\text{ kHz}$ . The integrated current driver presented in [19] is based on an open loop operational transconductance amplifier (OTA) with an active inductive load. It was reported to achieve an output impedance in excess of  $500\text{ k}\Omega$  at  $500\text{ kHz}$  but its maximum output current is limited to  $500\text{ }\mu\text{A}$  pk-pk.

We are working on the development of a parallel current drive EIT system with "active" electrodes, primarily for neonatal lung function imaging [1], [5]. The encapsulation of the current driver (and impedance measurement circuitry) within the electrode shell removes lead capacitance problems and therefore enables fast, accurate impedance measurements at relatively high frequencies [20], [21]. A wearable active vest which contains a collection of active electrodes is being developed [22]. Our application requires current drivers with accurate transconductance and capable of generating currents up to  $5\text{ mA}$  pk-pk with good accuracy ( $<0.5\%$ ) over a wide frequency range ( $\leq 1\text{ MHz}$ ). Using custom integrated circuit techniques allows for system miniaturization and potentially better performance than discrete implementations [19]. In [23]

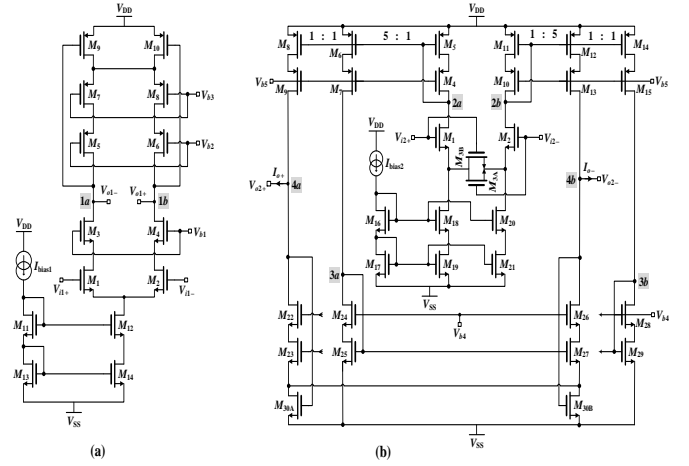


Fig. 1. Proposed current driver topology.

we presented the preliminary design of a high power CMOS current driver employing negative feedback (see Fig. 1). The negative feedback allows to accurately set the transconductance of the current driver through the value of the sense resistor  $R_s$ , and also regulates the current through the load thus enhancing the overall output impedance. This paper is an expansion of [23] where we present the complete design and test results of the fabricated current driver chip implemented in a  $0.6\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  high-voltage (HV) CMOS process technology. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II outlines the system architecture and circuit operation. Section III describes the circuit design of the system blocks. Section IV examines the frequency response and compensation using a small-signal equivalent model of the designed current driver circuit. Section V presents measured results from the fabricated chip samples. The concluding remarks of Section VI complete the paper.

## II. SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

Figure 1 shows the system block diagram of the current driver topology in which two identical single-ended feedback current drivers operate in balanced mode to minimize common mode voltage errors across the load ( $Z_{load}$ ). Each current driver consists of a preamplifier stage ( $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ) followed by a transconductance stage ( $G_{m1}$ ,  $G_{m2}$ ). The current through the load is sensed via two integrated resistors ( $R_{s1}$ ,  $R_{s2}$ ) and the resulting voltage is fed back to the negative input terminal of the preamplifier thus establishing a negative feedback path. Two voltage buffers ( $B_1$ ,  $B_2$ ) present in the feedback loop measure the voltage across the sense resistor and also isolate the load from the input signal. The output current is generated via a differential input voltage through which both current drivers receive  $180^\circ$  shifted signals ( $V_{in1}$ ,  $V_{in2}$ ) thus each one is either sourcing or sinking current relative to the other. Assuming a resistive load ( $R_L$ ) the low frequency transconductance of a single current driver is given by

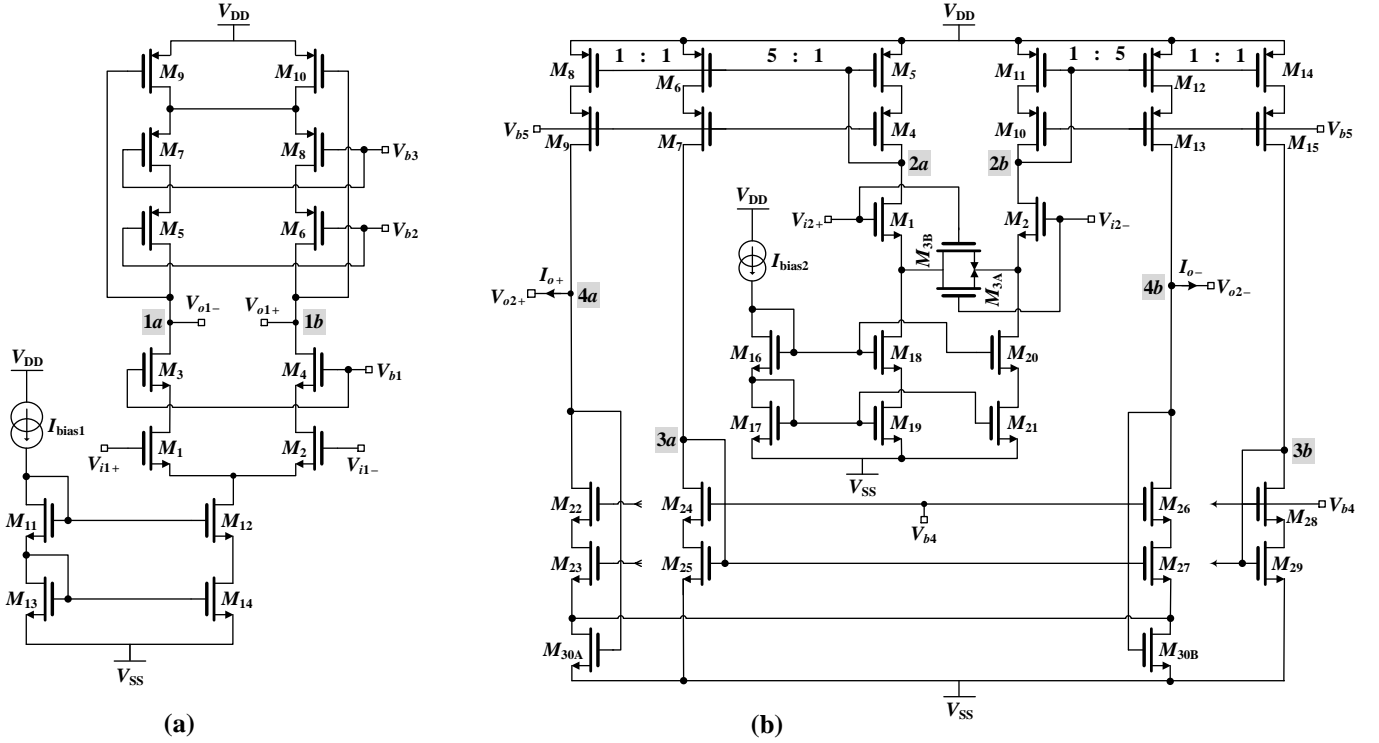


Fig. 2. (a) Transistor level schematic of the preamplifier. (b) Transistor level schematic of the transconductance stage.

$$G_{\text{driver}} = \frac{I_L}{V_{\text{in}}} = \frac{AG_m}{\frac{r_o + R_s + R_L}{r_o} + AG_m R_s} \quad (1)$$

where  $I_L$  is the load current,  $A$  is the voltage gain of the preamplifier,  $G_m$  is small-signal gain of the transconductance stage,  $r_o$  is the small-signal output resistance of the transconductance stage, and  $R_s$  is the sense resistor. If  $r_o \gg R_s + R_L$  and  $AG_m R_s \gg 1$  then  $G_{\text{driver}} \approx 1/R_s$ . Hence, if the above conditions are met,  $G_{\text{driver}}$  can be set according to the value of the sense resistor and thus be independent of the circuit's internal parameters. The total transconductance of the topology in Fig. 1 is twice the transconductance of a single current driver. The single current driver's output resistance is given by

$$R_{\text{out}} = r_o + (G_m r_o + 1)R_s. \quad (2)$$

The use of negative feedback therefore enhances the circuit's output resistance. The system's total output resistance is halved as the two current drivers are connected in parallel.

### III. CIRCUIT DESIGN

#### A. Preamplifier

The preamplifier provides an enhancement to  $G_{\text{driver}}$ . Fig. 2(a) shows the schematic diagram of the preamplifier in which a fully differential cascode topology is used. A cascode current mirror formed by transistors  $M_{11}$ - $M_{14}$  provides the input bias tail current to the input pair differential pair formed by  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ . Transistors  $M_3$ - $M_8$  provide active loading to the input differential pair thus enhancing the circuit's output resistance and differential gain. Bias voltages  $V_{b1-3}$  are applied

to the cascode pairs to ensure they are operating in the saturation region. All transistors are operating in the saturation region except from  $M_9$  and  $M_{10}$  which operate in the triode region. Their purpose is to provide a CMFB path to stabilize the dc voltage level at the output [24]. Any drifting of the output dc level is compensated by a change in the voltage across these two triode transistors which effectively act as resistors. The value of the resistance is a function of the transistor's geometry and gate-source voltage. A small change in the output dc voltage level is sensed at the gate of  $M_9$  and  $M_{10}$  whose resistance value changes, thus changing the voltage drop across them as the quiescent current flowing is constant. This change in the voltage drop across them is in a direction so as to oppose the change in the output dc voltage level. Transistor dimensions were calculated for minimum overdrive voltage consumed by the devices with a quiescent current of 500  $\mu\text{A}$ . The preamplifier's nominal open loop differential gain and -3dB bandwidth are 816 V/V and 2.76 MHz, respectively.

#### B. Transconductance Stage

Figure 2(b) shows the schematic diagram of the transconductance stage. The architecture is based on a pseudo differential balanced scheme. Transistors  $M_1$ - $M_2$  biased by current sources  $M_{19}$  and  $M_{21}$  form the input differential pair whose linearity characteristic is enhanced by the degeneration pair formed by  $M_{3A}$  and  $M_{3B}$ . High swing cascode current mirrors formed by transistors  $M_4$ - $M_8$ ,  $M_{10}$ - $M_{15}$  and  $M_{22}$ - $M_{29}$  provide an increased output resistance and a reduced overdrive voltage compared to their regular cascode counterpart. Transistors  $M_{30A}$  and  $M_{30B}$  operate in the triode region and stabilize the output dc voltage levels as described in the preamplifier circuit. The current (single-ended) at the output

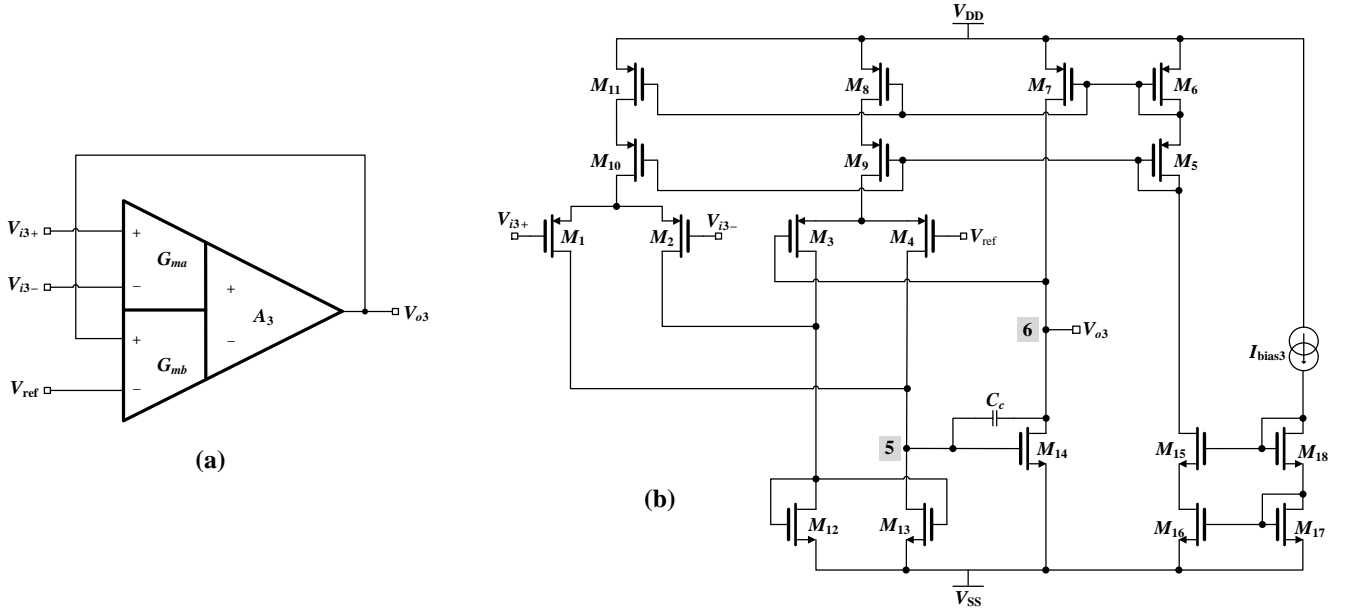


Fig. 3. (a) Unity gain voltage buffer using a differential difference amplifier. (b) Transistor level schematic of the voltage buffer.

node ( $V_{o2}$ ) is the difference between the current supplied by the PMOS and NMOS current sources. It can be approximated by  $I_o \approx BG_{mi}(V_{i2+} - V_{i2-})$  where  $B$  ( $=5$  here) is the current mirror gain factor between  $M_5$  and  $M_6$ ,  $M_8$  (or  $M_{11}$  and  $M_{12}$ ,  $M_{14}$ ) as shown in Fig. 2(b), and  $G_{mi}$  is transconductance of the source degenerated input stage ( $M_1$ ,  $M_2$ ,  $M_{3A}$ ,  $M_{3B}$ ). The dc bias current ( $I_{bias2}$ ) is  $500 \mu A$  and the circuit achieves a maximum output current amplitude of  $5 \text{ mA}$ , thus ensuring the  $2.5 \text{ mA}$  pk-pk required output lies within the circuit's linear region of operation.

The output voltage compliance of the transconductance circuit in Fig. 2(b) determines the maximum load that the current driver can drive with the maximum output current amplitude of  $2.5 \text{ mA}$ . However, the allowable injected current amplitude must comply with international safety standards [25]. For frequencies less than  $1 \text{ kHz}$  where the load magnitude is of the order of  $10 \text{ k}\Omega$ , the maximum allowable current is around  $100 \mu A$ , which translates to an output voltage compliance of about  $2 \text{ V}$ . Current amplitudes of  $2.5 \text{ mA}$  are allowed at frequencies higher than  $25 \text{ kHz}$  where the load magnitude is reduced to approximately  $1 \text{ k}\Omega$ , therefore requiring an output voltage compliance of  $5 \text{ V}$ . The current driver's output voltage compliance ( $V_{out}$ ) is determined by the effective compliance of the transconductance stage [Fig. 2(b)]. It is given by

$$V_{SS} + V_{M_{30B}} + V_{ovM_{26}} + V_{ovM_{26}} < V_{out} < V_{DD} + V_{ovM_{12}} + V_{ovM_{13}}. \quad (3)$$

where  $V_{SS}$  and  $V_{DD}$  are respectively the positive and negative supply voltages,  $V_{ovMi}$  is the overdrive voltage of transistor  $M_i$ , and  $V_{M_{30B}}$  is the voltage across  $M_{30B}$ .

Transistor dimensions were adjusted in order to maximize output voltage compliance. The output voltage compliance is approximately  $15 \text{ V}$  (some nonlinearities exist near the limits as transistors enter the triode region). This voltage compliance can accommodate a wide range of load impedances, hence making the current driver suitable for a variety of EIT

applications. The transconductance stage was designed for a nominal gain of  $5.6 \text{ mA/V}$  and a  $-3\text{dB}$  bandwidth at approximately  $13 \text{ MHz}$  when the outputs are short-circuited.

### C. Voltage Buffer

The purpose of the voltage buffer is to provide a measure of the injected current to the electrode-tissue load by measuring the voltage across the sense resistor ( $R_s$ ). The measured voltage is fed back to the negative input terminal of the preamplifier thus forming a negative feedback loop. As shown in Fig. 1 the voltage buffer is a differential to single ended architecture and the most common topologies are IAs [26], [27]. However, the gain of an IA is typically the ratio of two resistors which have to be tightly matched (for unity gain). To avoid the use of tightly matched resistors the design used a differential difference amplifier (DDA) [28] configured as a differential to single ended unity gain voltage buffer [see Fig. 3(a)]. The DDA features two transconductance elements ( $G_{ma}$ ,  $G_{mb}$ ) followed by an amplification stage ( $A_3$ ). Input to the structure is via the input terminals of the top transconductor. The output terminal is fed back to the positive terminal of the bottom transconductor while the negative terminal is held at a constant reference level ( $V_{ref}$ ) which is set to  $0 \text{ V}$ . The negative feedback configuration follows the difference between terminals  $V_{in+}$  and  $V_{in-}$ , which are connected across the sense resistor terminals as shown in Fig. 1. The schematic diagram of the voltage buffer is shown in Fig. 3(b). Transistors  $M_1$ - $M_4$  form the two input transconductors biased by current sources  $M_8$  and  $M_{11}$ . A second amplification stage is formed by transistors  $M_7$  and  $M_{15}$ . NMOS current mirror pair  $M_{12}$  and  $M_{13}$  performs the differential to single ended operation required for the subtraction of the four inputs. The output node is fed back to the gate of transistor  $M_3$  for unity gain and a reference voltage set at  $0 \text{ V}$  is applied to the gate of  $M_4$ . A  $1 \text{ pF}$  compensation capacitor ( $C_c$ ) is added for improved phase margin.

The voltage buffer's small signal voltage gain is given by

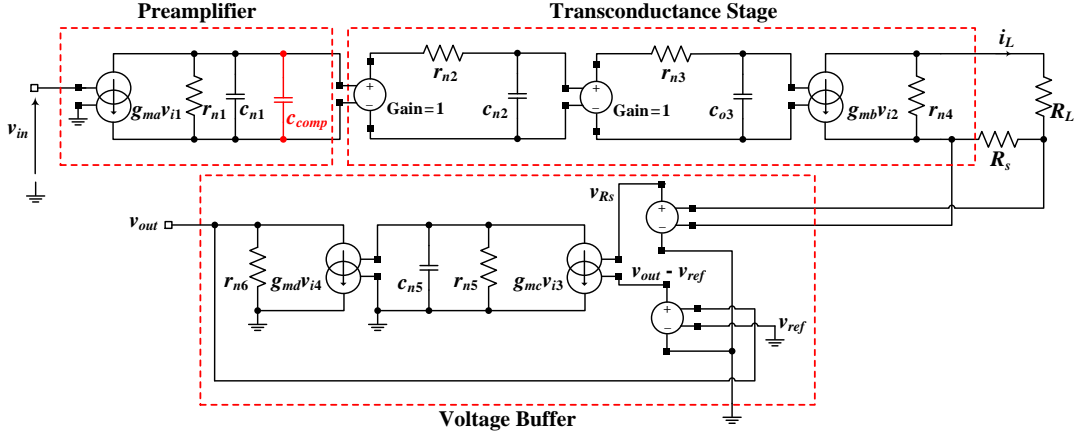


Fig. 4. Small-signal model for calculation of the loop gain.

$$A_v = \frac{g_{m1}g_{m13}g_{m14}}{(g_{o1} + g_{o4} + g_{o13})g_{m13}(g_{o14} + g_{o7}) + g_{m1}g_{m13}g_{m14}} \quad (4)$$

where  $g_{mi}$  and  $g_{oi}$  are respectively the small-signal transconductance and output conductance of transistor  $M_i$ . The circuit achieves a gain of 0.9958 V/V at dc and is reduced to 0.9946 V/V at 1 MHz.

#### IV. FREQUENCY COMPENSATION

In order to ensure stability in the negative feedback loop the loop phase response must not exceed the  $180^\circ$  point. The closed-loop transfer function of a negative feedback system is given by

$$T(s) = \frac{A(s)}{1 + A(s)f} \quad (5)$$

where the term  $A(s)f$  is the feedback loop gain. When the phase of the feedback loop becomes  $-180^\circ$  at the unity gain frequency of the system, then  $A(s)f = -1$ , and the denominator in (5) becomes zero causing the closed loop transfer function to become infinity. Thus, the system becomes unstable and the output oscillates with increasing amplitude. In order to examine the feedback loop response of our system, a simplified small-signal equivalent circuit of a single current driver was constructed and simulated to verify its performance relative to the transistor-level design. The simplified small-signal equivalent circuit is shown in Fig. 4 with the feedback loop open<sup>1</sup>. Only capacitances associated with dominant poles are shown as the rest take place at much higher frequencies and do not affect the frequency performance of the system. In the preamplifier [Fig. 2(a)] the dominant poles occur at nodes 1a and 1b, in the transconductance stage [Fig. 2(b)] at nodes 2a, 2b, 3a and 3b, and in the voltage buffer [Fig. 3(b)] at node 5, the latter forming pole  $p_5$ . Nodes 1a and 1b carry signals with the same amplitude but opposite phase. Therefore, nodes 1a and 1b form one single pole  $p_1$ . The same applies to node pairs (2a, 2b) and (3a, 3b) in the transconductance stage, forming poles  $p_2$  and  $p_3$ , respectively. In the small-signal model  $r_{ni}$  and  $c_{ni}$  represent the resistance and capacitance of

node  $n_i$ , respectively. The terms  $g_{ma}$  and  $g_{mb}$  denote the small-signal transconductance of the preamplifier and the transconductance stage, respectively. The terms  $g_{mc}$  and  $g_{md}$  denote the small-signal transconductance of the voltage buffer's input stage and output stage, respectively. The values of the small-signal parameters were obtained using the extracted values from the transistor level circuit in Cadence. The resistances  $R_L$  and  $R_s$  were set to 1 k $\Omega$  and 500  $\Omega$ , respectively.

The system's loop gain transfer function is given by

$$\frac{v_{out}}{v_{in}} = \frac{g_{ma}g_{mb}g_{mc}g_{md}r_{n1}r_{n5}r_{n6}R_s}{p_1p_2p_3(p_5 + g_{mc}g_{md}r_{n5}r_{n6})}. \quad (6)$$

The position of the four poles  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $p_3$ , and  $p_5$  of the uncompensated loop gain were evaluated at  $f_{p1} = 916$  kHz,  $f_{p2} = 13.26$  MHz,  $f_{p3} = 205.8$  MHz, and  $f_{p5} = 13.55$  MHz, and the unity gain frequency point at approximately 53 MHz. Pole  $p_3$  could be neglected as it takes place at a very high frequency, yielding a three-pole system. Poles  $p_2$  and  $p_5$  take place at really close frequency points. This results in an excess of  $180^\circ$  phase shift as  $p_2$  and  $p_5$  take place before the unity gain frequency point thus causing system instability. Placing a capacitor ( $c_{comp}$ ) between the preamplifier and the transconductance stage provides dominant pole compensation. A 60 pF compensation capacitor created a dominant pole at approximately 7 kHz yielding sufficient phase-margin for stability in practice.

#### V. MEASURED RESULTS

The current driver was designed and fabricated in a 0.6- $\mu$ m CMOS HV process technology [29]. The design and layout were performed with Cadence software. Each of the two on-chip sense resistors were chosen to be 500  $\Omega$ , yielding a nominal  $G_{driver}$  value of 4 mV/A. The fabricated chip microphotograph is shown in Fig. 5 with the main components numbered. The size of the core area is 0.64 mm<sup>2</sup>. The total chip area including pads and test structures is 6.18 mm<sup>2</sup>. The tests performed aimed to study the circuit's transconductance ( $G_{driver}$ ) over the required input voltage range as well as the accuracy of the output current over frequency. Other parameters such as output impedance, total harmonic distortion (THD) and input/output phase were evaluated and are reported in Table I. All of the eleven chips operated

<sup>1</sup> The feedback loop was broken and the negative input of the preamplifier was set to a dc level that matches the output dc level of the voltage buffer which was almost 0 V.



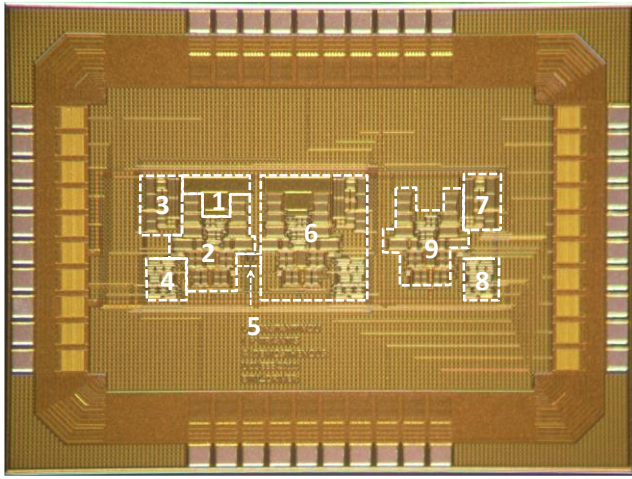


Fig. 5. Chip microphotograph with main circuit blocks numbered. (1) Compensation capacitor, (2) OTA, (3) Preamplifier, (4) Voltage Buffer, (5) Sense resistors, (6) Second current driver, (7) Preamplifier test structure, (8) Voltage buffer test structures, (9) Transconductance stage test structure.

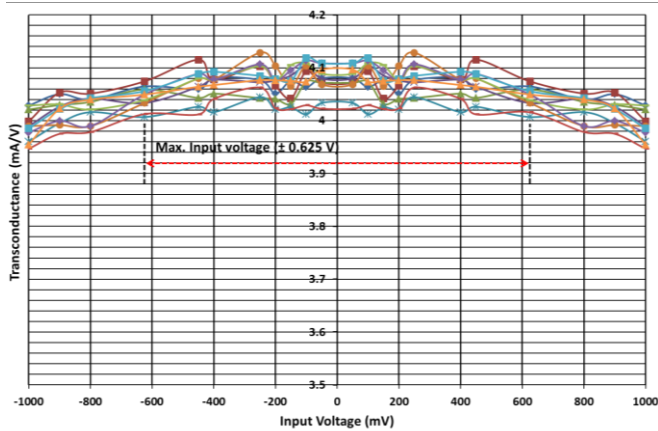


Fig. 6. Transconductance of current driver vs. input voltage amplitude at 100 kHz for eleven chips.

satisfactorily. The chip was mounted on a purpose-built printed circuit board providing the necessary bias currents as well as input/output signals to the circuit. The circuit was operated from a  $\pm 9$  V power supply.

The input voltage to the current driver chip was controlled via a TTI TGA12101 signal generator, able to operate up to 40 MHz. Fig. 6 shows the measured transconductance as a function of the input voltage for a frequency of 100 kHz. The signal generator was used to generate input voltage signals of amplitude up to 1 V. An on-board AD8253 IA with variable gain settings from Analog Devices, able to operate up to 10 MHz with unity gain setting, was used to measure the differential voltage developed across the load impedance. The output voltage was monitored using an Agilent Infinii Vision oscilloscope. The transconductance was then evaluated over a load of  $1\text{ k}\Omega/4.3\text{ pF}$  at a frequency of 100 kHz. The maximum input voltage amplitude corresponding to the maximum output current of 2.5 mA is  $\pm 0.625$  V. The measured results confirm an average transconductance value of 4.07 mA/V with a standard deviation of 0.012 mA/V and a maximum spread of 1% for all eleven chips, within the

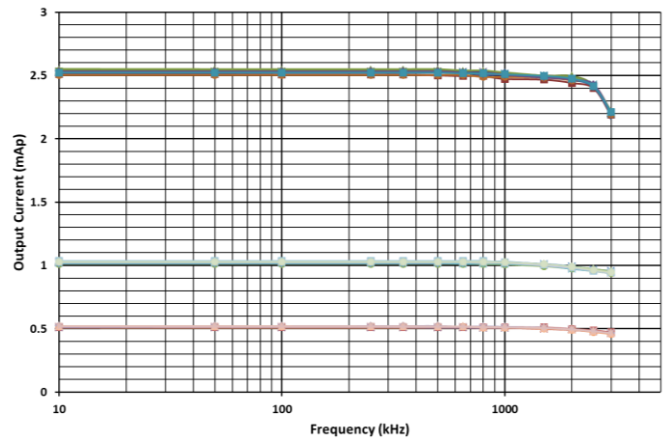


Fig. 7. Output current amplitude vs. frequency for eleven chips at amplitudes of 0.5 mA, 1 mA and 2.5 mA.

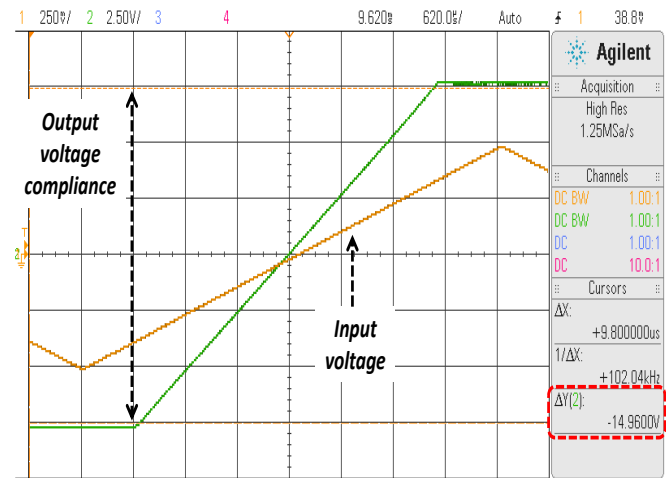


Fig. 8. Current driver output voltage compliance.

maximum input voltage range. The average value of the transconductance falls within 1.7% of the expected value (4 mA/V) which can be related to a percentage fabrication error in the value of the sense resistor.

Figure 7 shows the measured output current at amplitudes of 0.5 mA, 1 mA and 2.5 mA for the eleven chips over the frequency range of 10 kHz to 5 MHz with a load of  $1\text{ k}\Omega/4.3\text{ pF}$ . In the frequency range 10 kHz to 500 kHz the accuracy of the output current is of the order of 0.15% for 0.5 mA, 0.22% for 1 mA and 0.41% for 2.5 mA. Between 10 kHz and 1 MHz the accuracy of the output current is of the order of 0.15% for 0.5 mA, 0.23% for 1 mA and 0.47% for 2.5 mA.

The THD of the current driver was evaluated using an Agilent E4411B spectrum analyzer at 500 kHz. THD results were taken for three different input voltage amplitude levels, corresponding to 0.5 mA, 1 mA and 2.5 mA output current amplitudes, and the power from ten harmonic frequencies was measured each time. The measured THD for 0.5 mA was 0.52%, 0.53% for 1 mA and 0.69% for 2.5 mA. The IA's THD figure at 500 kHz had a negligible effect on the measurements.

The output impedance performance of the current driver was measured for frequencies between 100 kHz and 1 MHz as



Table I. Chip Performance Parameters and Comparison With Previous Work.

	[10]	[11]	[15]	[17]	[18]	[19]	This work
Architecture	MHC	MHC	Current Conveyor	Supply Current Sensing	Differential Current Generator	H-Bridge	Negative Feedback
Max. Output Current	2mA pk-pk	1mA pk-pk	1mA pk-pk	-----	350μA pk-pk	107μA pk-pk	5mA pk-pk
Bandwidth	50kHz	1kHz-1MHz	10kHz-250kHz	1kHz-1MHz	90kHz	≤10MHz	≤500kHz
Output Impedance ( $Z_o$ )	≥1.7MΩ @50kHz	670kΩ @100kHz, 330kΩ @300kHz	148.9kΩ @100kHz, 29.7kΩ @500kHz	14.5MΩ @100kHz, 2.5MΩ @1MHz (Simulated results)	~560kΩ @90kHz	108MΩ @100kHz, 10.2MΩ @1MHz (Simulated results)	664.9kΩ @100kHz, 371.8kΩ @500kHz
THD	-----	-----	-----	-----	0.81 % @250μA pk-pk	>1% @107μA pk-pk	0.69% @5mA pk-pk
Offset voltage	-----	-----	0 V	4.9mV (5V supply, Simulated results)	-----	1.8V (3.6V supply, simulated results)	0.9 V (18V supply)
Technology	Discrete	Discrete	Discrete	Bipolar	0.18-μm CMOS	0.18-μm CMOS	0.6-μm CMOS HV

lower frequency measurements were not possible due to equipment limitations. The output impedance was measured by varying the load magnitude between two values of 100 Ω and 5.1 kΩ and recording the change in the measured output voltage with the output current set to 200 μA. The output impedance magnitude was calculated by

$$Z_{out} = \left| \frac{(V_2 - V_1)R_{L1}R_{L2}}{(V_2R_{L1}) - (V_1R_{L1})} \right|. \quad (7)$$

where  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are the two individual voltage readings and  $R_{L1}$  and  $R_{L2}$  are the two load values.

The associated parasitic capacitance was 4.7 pF, measured with a Wayne Kerr 6500B impedance analyzer, which was incorporated in order to evaluate the magnitude of the load impedance at every frequency point. The measured output impedance was approximately 665 kΩ at 100 kHz reducing to 372 kΩ at 500 kHz and 64 kΩ at 1 MHz. It should be noted, however, that the above method of determination of the output impedance is very sensitive to small variations in the measured signals and hence, the output impedance estimation is listed with a percentage deviation of ±15% at 100 kHz, ±10% at 500 kHz and 2% at 1 MHz.

The input/output phase delay was evaluated at a frequency range between 10 kHz and 1 MHz. Input/output phase delay characteristic of the chip presents an important feature especially for bioimpedance measurements as determination of the load impedance phase is crucial. Hence, in cases where the phase shift caused by the instrumentation is not taken into account it can lead to erroneous load impedance estimations. The input/output phase response was measured to be 0.37° at 10 kHz, 0.7° at 100 kHz, 8° at 500 kHz and 12° at 1 MHz. The phase shift introduced by the IA was also characterized and subtracted from the total recorded value. Figure 8 shows the output voltage compliance of current driver when driving a load of 5.1 kΩ and varying the input voltage amplitude. The allowable voltage compliance was measured to be

approximately 15 V. Table I summarizes the main performance characteristics along with a comparison with previous work. The presented current driver is superior....

## VI. CONCLUSION

A high power integrated current driver implemented in a 0.6-μm standard HV CMOS technology has been presented. The circuit features a pair of balanced current drivers in a negative feedback configuration for monitoring and regulating the output current. The negative feedback offers the possibility of accurately setting the amplitude of the output current via the input voltage through a constant transconductance feature independent of the circuit's internal parameters. The constant transconductance feature was tested and verified with a mean value of 4.07 mA/V and a standard deviation of 0.012 mA/V for an input voltage of ±0.625 V which translates to the maximum allowable output current. The maximum spread between eleven chips is 1%. The result confirms not only a constant value within the required input range but also a tight matching between different chips which is a vital requirement when dealing with active electrodes as every electrode will be connected to an individual chip. The current driver can deliver an output current of 5 mA pk-pk with an accuracy of 0.41% in the frequency range between 10 kHz and 500 kHz and a maximum THD of 0.69%. The allowable voltage compliance makes the circuit suitable for driving a wide range of load impedances for high output current applications. The circuit has an output impedance of 372 kΩ at 500 kHz. The fabricated chip occupies a core area of 0.64 mm<sup>2</sup>. The chip is primarily intended for a parallel current drive EIT system using active electrodes for neonatal lung function monitoring in intensive care units. It is also suitable for other EIT and bioimpedance applications [1] requiring wideband, accurate current drivers.

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